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What Children Do When They Read

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WHEN children read they are engaged in one or more of five fundamental processes of reading. These processes are (1) getting and using meanings; (2) reveries during reading; (3) putting oneself into what is read; (4) rereading for accuracy, review, suggestions, or reliving; and (5) reading for practice and skill. As the effectiveness of reading depends upon the successful conduct of these processes, the measurement of the pupils' achievement in reading consists of determining their control over these skills. Analyses of these processes are here presented as a basis for planning the teaching of reading, whether for diagnostic and remedial work or for the regular and more or less general activities of the reading program.

Getting and Using Meanings

The principal activity of the reading process is that of getting meanings from what is read. This process, though complicated, is a simple one as far as either a skillful reader or a superficial observer may see. Ordinarily, the child who is getting meanings from what is appropriate for him to read does so with no more apparent effort or attention to the mechanics of reading than he gives to the mechanics of walking on a smooth floor

or talking to a friend. The pupil may have no more reason for analyzing his reading than he has for analyzing his walking. For the progressing pupil, this condition is usually as it should be.

For the teacher, however, the process does not always run smoothly. Some pupils fail to get meanings quickly or accurately, and all pupils fail at times in either speed or accuracy. Consequently, teachers must analyze the process of getting meanings.

An analysis of this process yields a few very elementary activities. First, there is prompt and accurate visualization of what is to be read. With this visualization comes word recognition except for first presentations of the words which are visualized. There will be no attempt to draw a sharp distinction here between visualization and word recognition, although the strictly visual aspects of the case will be discussed first. Visualization requires the observing of the contour of words, the presence of certain forms within the general structure of words, and the ways in which letters and words are grouped upon the page. The contour of a printed word may, for example, be strikingly different from that of other words or it may be closely similar. The words *and* and *said*

are, for example, still confused at times by a child who has read 4,000 pages of primary books.

Other matters probably enter the situation and render certain words confusing and others easy, but contour is relied upon by the child who approaches reading as this child did by the word or sentence method. For that reason, in beginning to read, a child should, of course, have much practice upon one word before another word with a similar contour is presented. As contour is of great value in the early recognition of words, judicious use of it should be encouraged as a means of identifying words. The presence of certain forms, i. e. letters, within words presents a situation similar to the problem of word contour. The common confusing of the words *was* and *saw* appears to be an instance of this sort. The letter *a* seems to be either disregarded or visualized accurately while the positions of the letters *s* and *w* are neglected. The other elementary aspect of prompt and accurate visualization, the ways in which letters and words are grouped upon the page, tells the reader when a new chain of thought or a new form of context begins. Punctuation marks and capitalization, in addition to word order, are the cues in this situation. Here, as in the other forms of visualization, success comes only after much careful practice.

Second among the elementary activities in getting meanings from written or printed pages is word recognition, an activity which is so inextricably tied to visualization that it has already been discussed in the preceding paragraphs. In addition to what has been mentioned, word recognition includes, first, remembering that a given symbol has been previously visualized, or, second, noting that a new word contains cues which enable the reader to derive meaning from some previously visualized and remembered parts of the word, or, third, the recognizing of a word from the context in which the word occurs. At this third point the sheer recognition of a word expands to the attaching of meaning to it, an aspect which will be treated presently. Ob-

viously, a word must be recognized before meaning can be accurately attached to it. If simple recognition fails, the reader resorts to more complicated activities. If he knows the word *come*, he may, from the context and the first three letters, recognize *coming*. If he has already learned the use of the letters *ing*, his success is nearly certain. If he knows the word *genesis*, he may possibly piece together other bits of knowledge and observed relationships so that he can decipher *congenital*. Here, the difficulty is greater than that of recognizing the common elements of *come* and *coming*. The skillful reader recognizes many more or less hidden but significant parts of words, however, and from them derives meaning by weaving these parts together and judging them in the given reading situation.

The third elementary aspect of getting meaning from the printed page, the attaching of meaning to the word as a symbol, has been anticipated in the preceding paragraph. Neither the visualization nor the recognition of a word is significant for the reader, unless the correct meaning of the word accompanies the process. In early reading the words used have already been attached as spoken words to the meanings which they signify. Also, these first words are so chosen that the child is in little danger of attaching the wrong meaning to these words, for they are words like *father*, *mother*, *apple*, *street*, and so on, whose meanings have been very fully localized and made definite before reading is begun. If any word is likely to be mistaken, the teacher insures the correct meaning for the word by discussion or other context. Care has to be exercised in such discussion or intended aid; otherwise, undesired connections between words and symbols may be formed. The word *stand* was, for example, made temporarily difficult by a teacher who tried to help a child at the first presentation of the word. Instead of depending upon her clear pronunciation of the word, the teacher said to the pupils, *stand—stand up*. For many days the pupils' response to the printed word

Errors in Written Composition and Scores on Proof-Reading Tests

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THREE has been much discussion concerning the usefulness of tests in English of the "proof-reading" type—that is, tests in which the student is asked to supply missing punctuation marks, change small letters to capitals, insert a missing word, select one of a series of possibilities, and so on. There is some evidence¹ to suggest that mere recognition by a student of the need for capitals or punctuation in printed sentences is no guarantee that a student will use capitals and punctuation marks correctly when he writes. The present paper reports further data on this problem.

Material and Methods of This Investigation

The writer wanted to obtain from students some relatively spontaneous writing and some objective test results. In order to have these two sets of data comparable she wanted the same writing situations to occur in both. It seemed evident that if the students wrote on a topic of their own selection they might or might not employ the particular elements of mechanics that were covered by the tests. The first step in the problem was, then, to devise a situation in which the same elements might be tested by the two methods—objective tests and relatively spontaneous composition. The writer, therefore, first read a story to 143 students and asked them to reproduce the story from memory, sticking as closely as they could to the wording used in the story; the students were allowed to get the impression that they were being given a test of memory. If any adequate reproduction of the story were made, certain proper nouns would require capitals and certain punctuation marks would have to be used.

¹See for instance Willing, M. H. *Valid Diagnosis in High School Composition*, *TEACHERS COLLEGE CONTRIBUTIONS TO EDUCATION*, No. 230, 1926, 67 pp.

After the students had written their spontaneous productions they were given some sentences so printed as to have neither capitals nor punctuation and to involve ten problems of capitalizing and twelve of punctuating. The sentences were taken from the story previously read so as to require use of such capitals and punctuation marks as would, in all probability, occur in the compositions. The students were asked to supply whatever marks or capitals were missing. Finally, they were given another "proof-reading" test consisting of sentences very closely paired to those they had just completed; the sentences of this second test presented precisely the same mechanical problems in precisely the same order, but the words used were different.

From each student, then, there were obtained three measures: (1) the performance on the composition; (2) the score on the first test which consisted of sentences taken from the story, and (3) the score on the second test, consisting of sentences containing similar problems. For the last two measures, the student was presented only once with each of the capitalizing or punctuating situations studied; in the composition, a student might or might not present himself with every situation, and he might get involved in the same situation more than once, but since the material on which he wrote was the same as that used for the other measures, these sources of difficulty in comparison were reduced to a minimum.

The compositions were all marked by one person. Only those situations included in the tests were considered. Inasmuch as a student might use a particular element more than once in his composition but could use it only

once in the tests, something had to be done to compensate for the possible repetitions of a given usage. It was decided to score a usage as wrong if it were used incorrectly even once. Thus, if a student began eleven sentences with capitals and then failed so to begin the twelfth, he was scored as failing to "capitalize the beginning of sentences" on his composition. He was thus penalized if he did not have perfect habituation. This technique should be kept in mind in considering the result. A separate score was obtained for each of the twenty-two elements studied on each of the three measures, so that it was possible to tell if a particular student began "Tommy" with a capital in his composition and on the first proof-reading test, and if he began with a capital a similar proper name on the second proof-reading test. The specific elements included in the tests are presented below:

Capitals:

- (1) Beginning of sentences (2) Uncle²
- (3) Jerry (4) Beginning of a direct quotation (5) Tommy (6) Hunting³
- (7) Song³ (8) Mendel (9) Scotland
- (10) cave (capital to be omitted)⁴.

Punctuation:

- (1) Period at end of sentence (2) singular possessive—Tommy's or Mendel's
- (3) Comma before direct quotation
- (4) Quotation marks around direct quotation
- (5) Quotations around title (or underlinings)
- (6) A chance to use a comma after an introductory clause where no comma was needed
- (7) Comma in a series
- (8) Commas around an appositive
- (9) Comma after "of course"
- (10) Comma after an introductory clause where failure to use a comma interfered with meaning
- (11) apostrophe with plural possessive
- (12) Comma after direct address.

²Part of a name.

³"Hunting Song" was a title.

⁴This word was so presented as to make the unwary student use a capital if he were in the habit of making this type of error.

Results

Although each student's record was tabulated in detail for each type of performance, these detailed records need not be presented here. The summary of the individual records is sufficient, for the purpose of this paper, to show comparisons among the measures. Three different interrelationships were determined. First, the composition and the Test 1 were related, then the composition and the Test 2, finally, Tests 1 and 2. The method used for these relationships was to draw a cross such as those given below and then, for each of the ten capitalization and twelve punctuation problems, tabulate in the upper right quadrant those students who got the item in question right on both the forms being related; in the lower left quadrant were put marks for those who failed both forms, and in the other two quadrants those who passed the item on one measure but not on the other. An example is given below:

29|86 "Uncle", 142 students, Relation
15|12 between composition and Test 1.

The item above shows the relationship between composition and Test 1 in capitalizing the word "Uncle" when part of a name. Of the 142 students who used this word in their compositions, eighty-six capitalized "Uncle" on the test and at all times in the composition; fifteen missed it on one test and at least one composition; twelve made errors in their writing but not the test, and twenty-nine made errors on the test but not in the writing. The test and actual writing agreed, then 101 times (86+15) out of 142.

In order to present all the facts, the writer summarized the three relationships (composition and Test 1, Composition and Test 2, and Tests 1 and 2) for each of the twenty-two items involved. The number of cases is not always 143 because some students did not present themselves with every situation in their spontaneous composition. The numbers, in each case, indicate what happened when those who had to solve a situation in their

composition were presented with a similar situation in objective form. Tests 1 and 2, of students who did the same thing on both measures. Thus, in the first item in cap-

TABLE I

Relationship Between:	(1) Composition and Test 1	(2) Composition and Test 2	(3) Tests 1 and 2
<i>Capitals</i>			
1. Beginning of Sentence.....			
1. Beginning of Sentence.....	1 116 1 25	2 116 0 25	6 132 1 4
2. "Jerry"	12 129 0 2	13 127 1 2	5 121 7 10
3. Beginning of Direct Quotation.....	25 70 85 15	3 89 16 30	0 99 3 41
4. "Hunting" when part of a title.....	6 118 1 12	3 122 2 10	2 133 2 6
5. "Scotland"	2 73 1 15	4 71 2 14	8 130 3 2
<i>Punctuation</i>			
1. Period at end of sentence.....			
1. Period at end of sentence.....	3 69 5 66	3 67 9 64	8 122 3 10
2. Apostrophe with singular possessive.....	18 69 14 16	19 69 9 20	12 91 23 17
3. Comma before direct quotation.....	9 68 9 52	20 54 24 40	39 96 5 3
4. Quotation marks around direct quotations.....	9 70 4 55	5 69 5 69	6 127 3 77
5. Quotation marks around title or line under it.....	8 69 18 42	10 69 16 42	9 111 15 8
6. Comma in series.....	1 45 2 57	3 42 9 31	11 126 3 3
7. Commas around appositive.....	9 37 17 34	11 35 12 39	16 92 13 22
8. Apostrophe with plural possessive.....	10 19 29 20	14 15 22 27	12 54 55 21
9. Comma after direct address.....	9 34 24 28	17 26 26 26	27 65 38 13

were, of course, taken by all 143 students. Table I shows typical results.

It should be noticed that the amount of agreement varies. A proper name is almost always capitalized, in either writing or tests, students are careless about putting periods at the ends of their sentences, while such relatively rare matters as tested by the last two punctuation items shows an almost chance distribution of error.

In summarizing these diagrams the writer took as the most significant fact the number

italizing, 117 (116+1) students did the same thing on their composition that they did on Test 1; 116 students (116+0) did the same thing on both composition and Test 2; 133 students (132+1) did the same thing on the two tests. These figures are obtained by adding the number in the upper right quadrant to that in the lower left quadrant. Evidently, if all students did the same thing on any two measures all of the marks would fall in those two quadrants, and there would be no scatter in the upper left and lower right

quadrants. It is quite obvious from casual examination of the above series that only a moderate amount of agreement holds for any two measures.⁵

It seemed desirable to get a further indication of the exact amount of agreement shown. The author therefore found the per cent of agreement from each diagram; that is, she took the per cent of students using a particular capital or punctuation mark on two different measures and doing the same thing,

per cents of agreement as thus reckoned are shown in Table II.

The table is to be read as follows: for capitalization at the beginning of a sentence 81% of the students did the same thing on their compositions that they did on Test 1, 81% did the same thing on the composition that they did on Test 2, and 94% agreed in their performance on Tests 1 and 2. It will be seen at once that the highest agreements are between the two tests, which show an average

TABLE II
Percents of Agreement, Two Proof-reading Tests and a Composition.

	Comp. and Test 1	Comp. and Test 2	Test 1 and Test 2	No. of cases for first two columns
<i>Capitals</i>				
1. Beginning of Sentence.....	81	81	94	143
2. Uncle	71	71	72	142
3. Jerry	90	89	90	143
4. Quotation	71	71	71	138
5. Tommy	86	83	83	140
6. Hunting	86	89	94	137
7. Song	73	74	94	137
8. Mendel	93	95	97	143
9. Scotland	80	80	93	91
10. Cave	86	79	91	109
Average.....	82	81	88	
<i>Punctuation</i>				
1. Periods	52	53	87	143
2. Singular possessive	71	67	80	117
3. Comma before quotations.....	56	57	71	138
4. Quotations	54	54	91	138
5. Quotations around title	64	63	88	135
6. (No Comma)	68	58	78	121
7. Comma in series.....	55	60	90	85
8. Comma in appositive.....	56	49	73	97
9. Comma after "of course".....	58	53	55	70
10. Comma after "finish".....	41	37	78	105
11. Plural possessive	62	48	76	78
12. Comma, direct address.....	61	55	72	95
Average.....	58	54	78	

whether right or wrong, on both measures. These per cents of agreement are based (in the first two diagrams for each item) on the total number of cases who attempted a particular usage in their spontaneous writing; for the third diagram the total number is always 143 since all students took the two tests. The

agreement of 88 for capitals and 78 for punctuation. The performance on the composition shows an average per cent of agreement with Test 1 of 82 for capitals and 58 for punctuation; for Test 2, the corresponding per cents are 81 and 54. It is distinctly encouraging to note that apparently it makes no difference whether the sentences contain the actual words used in the composition, and only a

⁵However, the severity in scoring compositions should be remembered.

little difference in the case of punctuation. It is also interesting that the agreement between the two objective tests is only 7% higher for capitals than that between the composition and Tests 1 and 2, averaged, although it is 22% higher for punctuation. On the punctuation test no item shows an agreement more than 71%. However, the poor writing of many students is a factor here, and also carelessness. Thus in the matter of quotation marks around a direct quotation, fifty-five students made errors in their writing but not on the test while only nine wrote correctly but failed to recognize the problems in the objective form.

Discussion

The question naturally arises as to what all these results may mean. Perhaps the most outstanding feature of the findings is the variability and lack of consistency and habituation shown. Thus it seems quite possible for a student to write the name "Uncle Jerry" four times in a three-page composition and fail to capitalize one word or the other on at least one occasion—and then, five minutes later, fail to see either word on an objective test, and ten minutes later capitalize the two words "Captain Jones" quite correctly upon a duplicate form of the same test. Unless one could find out with much more sureness than was possible in this investigation

which items students really do know and which they do not, it is obviously impossible to get any criterion by which to measure one form of test against another. The writer would suggest that it would be necessary to examine spontaneous writing of students on a dozen compositions, written on different days and on different subjects, give as many forms of proof reading tests, and perhaps best compare "error quotients" (per cent of correct response in relation to opportunities) in order to arrive at any adequate evaluation.

It is also suggested by much of the data that the more completely skills are mastered the less difference it makes what form of measurement is used. Thus, the divergence between test scores and performance is much less for capitalization than for punctuation. Wherever the students were uncertain of themselves they tended to vary on both test and composition.

Something further should be said as regards the diagnostic value of the objective test. It appears upon casual inspection that the scores, if used at their face value would fail to indicate some students who needed drill, and would recommend drill unnecessarily for other students. On the other hand, the use of a single composition would apparently be little if any better.

The need for a comprehensive program of research, on this whole field, is clear.

Right Uses of a Standard Language Test

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SPREAD out before me are reports from various parts of the country on uses of the Wilson Language Error Test during the past year. The eighth grade pupils in one school system show a decided improvement in February over scores made in September. The May scores, however, on the whole, show no further improvement, although such improvement would have been possible. For instance, one eighth grade with a median score of 18.5 in September has a median score of 21.5 in February and a median score of 21 in May. It appears from the report and other evidence that the work of pupils was not individualized. In other words, the motivation was a general grade motivation through the use of the test rather than the noting of individual errors with quite specific work according to the needs of each pupil.

A report from Florida shows fifth grade scores running as high as 26 and 27 on story C in May. This is evidently the result of following more closely the general test directions that errors of each individual pupil should be noted and the work of the pupil directed accordingly. In other words, the aim is to help pupils rather than to compare class averages with general norms.

A report on a ninth grade from New York State shows averages in February as low as 19 or 20 and decided improvement in May, running up to scores of 27.

These scores of 27, where the limit is 28, indicate almost perfect results. The teacher will be greatly helped if she gets the idea that perfect results are possible. In other words, there is no reason why a pupil should not eliminate his errors. To one who has not studied this question thoroughly the state-

ment in the last sentence may seem impossible. But careful study of individual pupils shows that an average fifth or sixth grade pupil will not have over ten or a dozen persistent errors. Such a child appears to use incorrect speech because these errors occur again and again. Alice Dunn of the Wells School, Boston, has shown that fifth grade pupils can be brought to letter-perfect results in speech and written language. This is feasible because with a very limited number of errors per pupil it is possible to note these and to correct them. The child may be a little stilted in his correct form at first, but persistence and the right spirit in the room will soon overcome this. Letter-perfect results are possible.

The general scheme of the Wilson Language Error Tests is that of placing incorrect forms in simple compositions. Notwithstanding the old tradition that incorrect forms should never be placed before children, these tests have proven not only valuable for testing but extremely valuable as a basis for teaching. Rightly handled, they provide not only good motivation but the actual stuff, that is, the common errors of speech, upon which the child needs to place time and attention.

The teacher should keep in mind that testing is not an end in itself. Merely to have given a standard test carries with it no particular virtue. Testing for purposes of classification and grouping is legitimate, but it is administrative and subordinate. Administration is never an end in itself. The administrator's duty is to clear the way for the main work of the schools, namely, teaching and developing the child. The main purpose of testing is to aid teaching, and any good test should serve this main purpose.

The teacher of language sometimes forgets its purpose. Language, of course, is a vehicle of thought. The thinking is basic, but expression must keep pace. A chief aim, therefore, in elementary language work is correctness of expression. When the teacher has located the specific errors of a child, she knows the points where emphasis should be placed. The improvement of individual pupils is the real criterion of successful use of tests, or for that matter, of successful teaching.

We are fortunate in the matter of language testing, in that emphasis from the beginning has been upon correct language expression. The Charters tests place the emphasis at this point. The Clapp Tests do the same. In fact, this has been the rule, although there are a few language tests where emphasis has been placed upon grammatical structure. This has been more common in the general achievement test batteries. Doubtless one reason for

this is that men who make up complete batteries of tests covering all subjects are less likely to be equally competent in all subjects.

It is evident, however, that the shifting of emphasis in testing is toward direct help in teaching and direct diagnosis of pupil needs. Testing for testing's sake is disappearing. Testing as an administrative function merely is still greatly overdone, but there is some evidence that it is disappearing.

Language tests are a good start in that they provide motivation and reveal a few errors of individuals. But the next step is to interest each pupil in listing all of his errors in language usage. This is more important than the testing itself, and it should lead to the most fundamental step of all, viz., plans for elimination of those errors. This should be the very heart of the language work of the grades. If standard tests have helped in arriving at this point, they have served a good purpose.

"Proper measurement is an aid to the teacher, not a final indication of anything, and it is his duty to use the means which have recently been discovered to bring to bear as much light as possible upon all teaching problems."

—George E. Freeland

Building a Language-Composition Curriculum in the Elementary School

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PART III TYPICAL LEARNING UNITS IN FOURTH GRADE LANGUAGE-COMPOSITION

THE worker in the field of the language-composition curriculum must decide his position upon certain controversial points in curriculum-making. The following problems illustrate the necessity for taking a stand. Should the language course of study be planned currently on the job, or should it be planned entirely in advance with the idea of having each pupil systematically attain the objectives of language-skills set up by this course? Should the dominant criterion in choosing the activities of a language curriculum be social needs, or the interests and abilities of the pupils? The position taken by the writer is as follows: (1) There should be a fairly constant core curriculum consisting of a checklist of objectives and language skills definitely apportioned among the elementary grades. The items in the check list should be socially defensible. (2) The activities designed to accomplish these objectives and skills should be chosen currently in the light of the pupils' prevailing interests and activities in and out of school. (3) The curriculum maker should provide in advance a statement of guiding principles in curriculum construction, of the objectives in general for each grade, and suggestive units for guiding the teacher. The latter should be allowed considerable latitude in modifying and supplementing the activities of such units, or in substituting still other units, provided that the adapted procedures will adequately accomplish the objectives of the course.

The units included within this paper are based upon the subject matter and activities comprised in the various subjects of the fourth grade of the local training school. Topics have been drawn from the fields of the social studies (history, geography, hygiene),

natural science, and physical science. The units have been so devised as to allow all expressional situations to arise in connection with subjects other than language. Because throughout any school day, children are called upon to discuss, summarize, and evaluate the materials and activities of their lessons, it seems that language-composition may be most effectively and economically taught in connection with all the expressional situations arising during the day. Then separate periods for drill in language skills may be provided whenever need arises. The teacher should have at hand a core curriculum of language usages, which are definitely assigned for teaching in her grade, should select expressional situations that will require these usages, should supplement this core curriculum as the pupils' needs and abilities demand, and should provide necessary supplementary drill in separate periods.

The attempt to incorporate language-composition activities in the other subjects of the fourth grade curriculum has given rise to perplexing problems. The first problem is, which of the many expressional situations arising throughout the day are most suitable as centers for language-composition units? The criteria that have determined the choice are: (1) The pupil should feel his expression to be to some purpose, particularly the informing or entertaining of an audience to whom he talks or writes. (2) Expression will contribute to practice and ability in some "functional center".

A most puzzling problem has lain in the deciding of specific goals appropriate to language units. The goals for language proper are skills in expression but, by tying language up to the other subjects, the curricu-

lum-maker brings in reactions of intellect, emotion, and conduct. Should goals in the way of understandings, attitudes, and behavior be included? It was decided to give language skills first place by stimulating expressional activities that reveal language needs and encourage practice for improvement to include the other types of goals appropriate to the correlated subject, and to justify their inclusion by teaching this subject and language in the same class period.

What testing is appropriate to the language learning unit? Certainly testing for the mastery of mechanics and correct usage is legitimate. This should preferably be achieved by the pupils' self-appraisal on the basis of definitely known standards of attainment. Other elements of ability in expression are to be tested by expression: "getting thought across." But should pupils be tested for understandings and behavior implicit in the unit? Johnson in speaking before the National Council of Teachers of English, said, yes. The units within this paper provide for such tests, which are to be justified by combining periods, and by arguing that our learnings are not departmentalized, and discrete, but rather concomitant and closely related.

What provision should be made locally for practice materials? This can best be decided after testing the pupils to determine their needs, but, generally speaking, practice materials will be provided in commercial form when appropriate. Mimeographed sheets containing locally improvised materials will be used to supplement the ready made exercises. The curriculum-maker should doubtless provide for teachers a bibliography of practice materials, commercial and otherwise, that are already on file, so that they may easily ascertain what is already available and devise supplementary exercises as needed. This is particularly necessary when drills are individualized as they should be.

How to maintain balance in planning and executing learning units is still another important problem. The writer foresees, in the practice of basing language activities upon

materials in other subjects, a danger of un-systematic attack upon the gaining of language skills. It seems that, as the year progresses, the teacher should tabulate which "functional centers" have received emphasis in the various units, should test systematically to ascertain which of the general objectives for the year have or have not been attained, and that she should constantly plan the units primarily for achievement and growth in expressional abilities that are appropriate to the stage of group and individual pupil growth.

The "functional centers" which have received emphasis in the units incorporated in this paper are (1) friendly letter, invitations and simple business notes; (2) conversation; (3) group discussion; (4) reports; (5) personal memoranda; (6) directions, instructions and explanations; (7) story telling; and (8) dramatization. Of Johnson's list of centers, two have been omitted: formal discussion, and special-occasion talks. These seem scarcely deserving of emphasis in the fourth grade.

The writer has, in constructing each unit, consulted the list of objectives presented in an earlier issue of the *ELEMENTARY ENGLISH REVIEW*. Practically all have been included, but some will certainly need major emphasis in other units; e. g., creativeness, enriched vocabulary, variety and accuracy in sentences, and organization. The following topics indicate which objectives have, perhaps, been most emphasized; letters, clear-cut and pointed statements, orderly sequence of ideas, naturalness and poise in manner.

The units that are included in this paper illustrate diverse types of subject matter and phases of language-composition teaching. The first two show what might be considered a single unit on letter-writing: the mechanical and expressional phases. The third shows how the social studies may provide excellent opportunities for expression, while yet training in historical thinking and personality traits such as co-operativeness and initiative.

The reader will note that these units also

vary in form. Units organized for the purpose of developing skills—the mechanics of expression—as a rule involve three parts: *specific goals* chosen from the core curriculum in the light of current needs, *suggested activities* which will systematically achieve these goals, and *practice materials* designed to fix the skills involved in the unit. Units in expression which utilize these same skills may then include but two divisions: *specific goals* and the contributory *activities*. When language-composition teaching is co-ordinated with extensive units in the content subjects, more elaborate organization is necessary. Inasmuch as intellectual reactions and behavior may be specified as goals, provision must be made for the organization of the pupils' information and reactions and for the testing of outcomes. Therefore the third sample unit includes four divisions: the *specific goals*, *suggested activities*, *methods of organizing*, and *testing*. In every unit, the functional centers involved in the activities are itemized. It should be understood that many of the specified activities and methods of organizing and testing are optional. The teacher will select those appropriate to well organized procedure and suitable to the occasion.

UNIT ON MECHANICS: FRIENDLY LETTER

Situation.—In geography the fourth grade pupils make a survey of how the world peoples live. The course begins with those peoples whose adjustments to their environment are the simplest; namely, the inhabitants of the jungles and arid regions of Africa. The pupils will undoubtedly be interested in taking advantage of an opportunity to write to school children of Sierra Leone. This present unit is designed to satisfy their desire to know correct form in writing friendly letters.

I. Specific goals

1. The letter should follow the regular standards of keeping margins.
2. The heading and both addresses on the envelope should be written in block form with commas separating the names of city and state, and the day of the month and year.
3. All proper names, the first and important words in the salutation, and the first word

in the complimentary close should be capitalized.

4. Commas should follow the salutation and the complimentary close (preceding the writer's signature).
5. Paragraphs should be indented as in any written discourse.

II. Suggested activities

1. Inspecting the appearance of a letter from a Sierra Leone correspondent.
2. Studying a mimeographed model of a two-paragraph friendly letter.
3. Formulating the rules for proper manuscript form, capitalization, and punctuation of the parts of the letter.
4. Copying in perfect form a one-paragraph friendly letter.
5. Writing from dictation the headings, salutation, and complimentary close of several friendly letters.
6. Writing various pupils' home addresses properly.
7. Appraising (by each pupil independently) the manuscript form, punctuation, and capitalization of the exercises in 4, 5, 6 above.
8. Exchanging with classmates a friendly note of one paragraph, each pupil checking for absolute accuracy the specific features of good form.

III. Practice materials

1. See model letter in syllabus (1929) for fourth-grade language.
2. Use for dictation the informal letter (or any similar one) found in Potter-Jeschke-Gillette.
3. Use headings, salutations and complimentary closes for letters as suggested in Potter-Jeschke-Gillette.

UNIT IN EXPRESSION: FRIENDLY LETTER

I. Specific goals

- A. The friendly letter has but few centers of organization.
- B. The friendly letter is informal.
- C. The friendly letter is cheerful.

II. Suggested activities

- A. Finding out how many of the class carry on friendly correspondence.
- B. Learning how many should in all courtesy be corresponding in a friendly way.
- C. Reading typical portions of friendly letters.
 1. Those received—if the correspondent will give permission.
 2. Those written—if the pupil is willing.

3. Those written to the pupil by an older member of the family for the purpose of "showing the pupil how".
4. Portions of letters written by Robert Louis Stevenson, Phoebe Carey, Roosevelt, and others. (See ELEMENTARY ENGLISH REVIEW, January, 1930.)
5. Models written by teacher to allow comparison of stiffness vs. informality, complaint vs. optimism, incoherence vs. organization.
- D. Deciding and listing the characteristics of desirable friendly letters.
- E. Practicing the writing of the body of a friendly letter (Class discussion following).
 1. Reply to the teacher's letter.
 2. Exchange with classmates.
 3. Exchange with fifth graders, telling them school news and personal experiences.
 4. A letter to Miss Crain (former third grade critic).
 5. A letter to a former playmate.
- F. Appraising the practice letters.
- G. Planning correspondence.
 1. List of possible correspondents.
 2. List of suitable topics.
 3. Choice of two or three topics for any one letter.
 4. Jotting down informal pleasant ways of saying things.
- H. Writing letters to send away (Each letter to be appraised by one person other than the writer; e. g., a special committee, any classmate whose practice letters put him on the honor roll, or the teacher.)
 1. Letters to a shut-in.
 2. Letters to a sick classmate.
 3. Letters to a former classmate.
 4. Letters to a former playmate.
 5. Letters to grandmother, aunt, cousin, etc.
 6. Letters to the children in the school at Moyamba, Sierra Leone.

LEARNING UNIT ON EXPERIENCES OF PIONEER RESIDENTS OF LARAMIE

Background.—It is planned that this language unit shall follow a quarter's study of Wyoming history in fourth grade. Several pupils in the group belong to the older families of the community. Hence, it is expected that the group will the more readily undertake the collection of the tales of pioneer experiences as told by residents of Laramie. The class can profit by the practice of the previous fourth grade who made a somewhat disorganized attempt

to collect true historical anecdotes. The latter group can report methods of procedure, typical findings, and the personnel of the residents who were willing to cooperate.

Sub-unit A: Collecting and organizing information.

- I. Specific goals
 - A. Language skills.
 1. In group discussion, letters, and interviews, make statements clear and pointed.
 2. Write the letters asking the cooperation of residents simply and in correct form.
 3. Plan and practice an effective system of collecting data and organizing the memoranda.
 - B. Intellectual reactions.
 1. Think clearly in foreseeing problems, in presenting issues, in selecting appropriate solutions and procedures, and in stating results.
 2. Set up and use standards for selecting materials as regards their historical value and pertinency to the problem.
 - C. Conduct.
 1. Be courteous and attentive listeners in group discussions, conferences, etc.
 2. Be ready with appropriate suggestions.
 3. Maintain a socially cooperative atmosphere in group discussions; do not be over-aggressive; be willing to follow able leadership; be ready to assume and share responsibility.
 4. Be ready to initiate new procedures or advisable changes.

II. Suggested activities

- A. Functional centers
 1. Concise, courteous informal letters.
 2. Group discussions.
 3. Conversations.
 4. Personal memoranda; keeping records.
 5. Instructions.
 6. Story-telling.
- B. Specific activities
 1. Summarizing Wyoming history which directly concerns Laramie (Basis: group discussion).
 2. Reproducing local anecdotes which various pupils recall (Story telling).
 3. Examining Nida's LETTERS OF POLLY THE PIONEER and similar materials which recount personal experiences of pioneers. (Committee reports.)

4. Planning conferences (Group discussion).
 - a. Whom to see.
 - b. What to ask.
 - c. What is appropriate to reproduce and record.
 - d. How to take down memoranda.
 - e. How to get in touch with residents.
 - f. What the new fifth grade can suggest on the basis of their last year's experience.
5. Formulating directions.
 - a. Conducting interviews.
 - b. Making memoranda.
 - c. Organizing memoranda.
 - (1) Separation according to topics (as Occupations, Hardships).
 - (2) No more than the setting and one unified experience or description in each report. (Perhaps several brief talks by a single individual).
6. Writing letters (cooperative or individual) to ask cooperation of residents.
7. Assigning the people to be interviewed to classmates (singly or in pairs).
8. Trying out the techniques of the interview in practice conferences.
9. Discussing as a group difficulties that have been encountered and adjustments that should be made.
10. Conducting the interviews.
11. Organizing memoranda in form for oral reports to classmates.

III. Suggested methods of organizing

- A. Chart organized by topics.
 1. A committee in charge.
 2. Each pupil stating on what topics materials have been collected.
 3. Tabulation of number of times each topic appears and individuals to report on each.
- B. Plans for presenting oral reports.
 1. Complete treatment of each topic in turn, or
 2. Mixed order in treating topics.

IV. Testing

- A. Writing letters to thank residents for cooperation.
- B. Reorganized memoranda that had been poorly organized.
- C. Explaining system of conducting interviews; suggested changes.
 1. Reason: part of record of project.

2. Publishing: most clear statement to be included in final report.
- D. Handing in organized memoranda for teacher's constructive criticism.

Sub-unit B: Recording information

- I. Specific goals
 - A. Language skills
 1. Speak directly, distinctly, easily, fluently.
 2. Express your meaning clearly and pointedly in clear-cut sentences.
 3. Choose words that express your meaning exactly and vividly.
 4. Develop a single complete incident or description in a brief talk or written report.
 5. Arrange the sentences in orderly sequence.
 6. Observe the approved forms for written work.
 - B. Intellectual reaction
 1. Judge the historical value of the materials; discard the unhistorical.
 2. Decide what materials are relevant to your topic of discussion; reject the irrelevant.
 3. Decide what organization, what sentence structure, what word choice, will make your report most clear and vivid. Appraise your report as planned before you give it.
 4. Select the materials that should be included in the written report according to the definite standards of fitness.
 - C. Conduct
 1. Listen courteously and attentively as others report and discuss.
 2. Choose on your committees those that can serve best in the specified duties.
 3. Support and aid your committees by submitting your best work.
- II. Suggested activities
 - A. Functional centers
 1. Group discussion.
 2. Story-telling; brief reports.
 3. Explanations.
 4. Dramatization.
 5. Announcement; notices.
 6. Invitations.
 - B. Specific activities
 1. (Committee) Announcing the order in reporting the results of interviews.
 2. Giving the talks.
 3. Discussing the reports. (Probably committees for various phases.)

- a. Historical value; possible inclusion in written report.
- b. Pertinency of material to the purpose of the project; possible inclusion.
- c. Appraisal of structure and quality of statements in the oral reports.
- 4. Planning the written record (Preliminary)
 - a. Summary report of the materials to be included.
 - b. Assigning topics to be treated by each child.
 - c. Studying stenographic reports of the better talks as models.
 - d. Setting up standards (general).
 - (1) Unity.
 - (2) Orderly sequence.
 - (3) Brevity.
 - (4) Vividness.
- 5. Writing the reports.
- 6. Choosing committees.
 - a. Appraising.
 - b. Illustrating.
 - c. Editing; copying.
- 7. Planning the written record (Final).
 - a. Examining books to see parts that should be included; as
 - (1) Title page.
 - (2) Dedication.
 - (3) Table of contents.
- (4) Preface: statement of purpose and procedure.
- (5) Chapter organization.
- (6) Illustrations.
- b. Deciding the organization of the record.
- 8. Writing the record.

III. Suggested methods of organizing.

- A. A pageant of Laramie history which incorporates the materials of the reports.
 - 1. An assembly for the other grades and the parents.
 - 2. Oral explanations; announcements.
- B. Making a sand table that features typical pioneer experiences and conditions; explaining this sand table to an audience.
- C. Making a "movie" of early Laramie scenes.
 - 1. Sequential arrangement of pictures.
 - 2. Writing of captions.
 - 3. Explanation of the movie to an audience.

IV. Suggested methods of testing

- A. Group discussions planning the pageant or movie.
- B. Planning and giving announcements.
- C. Writing invitations and notices.
- D. Writing an explanation of the project for the local newspaper.
- E. Summary of differences between pioneer life and present-day living in Laramie.

" . . . human efforts, human desires, human ideals, human strivings do make a difference to the course of events. If we do not believe this it is futile and inconsistent to talk of and to strive after self-discipline, or the moral training of our children, or social betterment or the realization by our efforts of any ideal whatever."

—William MacDougall

(Continued from page 156)

was *stand up*. There was, however, little danger of the pupil's getting any meaning for the word other than the desired one, and the simple pronunciation of it by the teacher would have been sufficient.

First among the more advanced activities of getting meanings from the written or printed page is an extension of one just mentioned—that of getting the right meaning of a given word. This often requires a discriminating choice among several possible meanings of the word itself. A striking instance which illustrates the difficulty of finding the correct meaning of a word was found in an exhibition of school drawings. Pupils of Grade III had read one of Christina Rossetti's poems, and, later, their art teacher had encouraged them to select their own subjects for their drawings. The poem opens as follows:

"The earth was green, the sky was blue;
I saw and heard one sunny morn
A skylark hang between the two,
A singing speck above the corn:
A stage below, in gay accord,
White butterfly danced on wing,"
and so on.

One of the pupils was attracted by her notion of "A stage below, in gay accord," and produced an exceptionally interesting drawing of a gaily decorated stage drawn by four prancing steeds. This was, however, a happier artistic result than could have been achieved if she had attempted to illustrate the preceding lines by brutally hanging the skylark! Although pupils should be led to consider such a poem as a whole, this instance indicates the necessity of making sure that the selection is accurately understood in detail¹.

A second advanced activity in getting meanings, the recognition and the use of signifi-

cant cues, is at times a part of the process of getting the right meaning of a given word. The recognition and use of cues sometimes involves a simple recognition of grammatical characteristics, sometimes the observation of rhetorical usage, and sometimes a highly organized combination of meanings as in mathematical reasoning. The place of grammar and rhetoric as such in reading is of course, one of which few elementary school pupils are sufficiently analytical to be aware. The analytical teacher, however, simply, effectively, and more or less consciously uses grammar and rhetoric in helping pupils, just as pupils use those sciences in their own interpretations of passages.

A highly involved combination of meanings was pieced together by a sixth-grade pupil who was reading Paul du Chaillu's story entitled "The Long Night." The word *sardonic* occurred in the phrase, "the sardonic laugh of the 'Long Night'." The pupil evolved the meaning of *sardonic* without the aid of the glossary. She described her process by saying that she first thought the word meant "hollow, cold." Next she found that the laugh was "sinister." She did not know the meaning of *sinister*. Leaving the exact interpretation of *sardonic* in abeyance, she found, three paragraphs later, that the laugh was one "of defiance." The meaning was there stated as "mocking defiance," an interpretation that fitted the text very well. This interpretation was probably dependent upon additional aids which the pupil overlooked in describing the process. Objectively, however, reading as reasoning was shown: (1) A tentative meaning was assigned to the word *sardonic*—the guess or hypothesis; (2) additional data were collected—relevant facts arrayed; (3) the facts were evaluated; (4) judgment was suspended; (5) a tentative conclusion, or meaning, was announced; and (6) the conclusion was tested and found suitable.

¹ Cf. F. D. Brooks, THE APPLIED PSYCHOLOGY OF READING, D. Appleton and Company, 1926, pp. 72-83, for an excellent discussion of this point.

A Second Grade's Three-Foot-Shelf

MARION GILL VALENTINE
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IN a crowded school on a street known to many as the "The Street of the Push-carts," the children come to the second grade with a great desire and eagerness for supplementary material to read. They have an ardent wish to explore their but newly discovered "Land of Story-Books" and wish to investigate more of its pleasant nooks and fascinating byways for themselves.

In many cases this longing is left largely unsatisfied and the opportunity for the formation of a habit that would lead to a life-long, worthwhile use of leisure time is delayed for several years. However, a second grade teacher solved the problem and opened the gates of Bookland to eager knockers at its portals by using an empty shelf in her supply closet. As there was neither space in which to place, nor funds with which to buy a separate book case for the room, the teacher labelled this space her Three-Foot Book-Shelf, and zestfully set about filling it.

The shelf was not meant to serve as a model, but it gave as much joy to the small dwellers on the "Street of the Push-Carts," as did the magic travelling cloak to the Little Lame Prince in his Lonely Tower, and it satisfied as great a need as did that famous cloak.

The majority of the parents of the children could neither read nor write English, and spoke it but poorly. Home libraries they had none. There was a school library, to be sure, but it was used by the older boys and girls and had been planned for their use. To these small children the public library seemed farther away and more inaccessible than was the Garden of Hesperides to Hercules. Big brothers and big sisters who did visit it occasionally had work of their own to do, and

did not wish to be guardians to small Arax or slow Moe; and streets were too perilous for seven and eight-year-olds alone.

Therefore with the needs of wistful Arax and stumbling Moe definitely in mind, with the situation of the "Street of the Push-Carts" in the ever-present foreground, and with certain remote aims and ideal standards of her own upon the far horizon, Teacher set about to select books for her shelf. In this she felt the need of expert advice.

She made use of the reading and literature syllabi of the Board of Education, of the monthly bulletins of the Public Library, of publisher's folders and catalogues, the children's book departments of several large department stores having splendid ones for this purpose. She read the book reviews in the daily papers, many of which have a special section devoted to children's books. She consulted librarians and visited several educational publishing houses where special rooms were devoted to their display of supplementary reading material.

Several books helped her greatly in selecting and grading material. Among these were *FINGERPOSTS TO CHILDREN'S READING* by Walter Taylor Field (A. C. McClurg Co.), the appendix to *TYPES OF CHILDREN'S LITERATURE* by Walter Barnes, (World Book Co.) and *CHILDREN'S READING*, Terman and Lima, (D. Appleton and Co.).

As she placed her books upon the shelf, Teacher asked herself, "Is the content of this within the comprehension of Arax and of Moe? Is the language suitable? Will it lead to an enrichment of vocabulary and improved use of language in the class? Are the selections varied? Do they possess, even though written for eight-year-olds, a charm

of style and beauty of words and ideas? Have they a touch of humor—that ever-present help in time of trouble? Will they develop correct attitudes toward life? Are they books which these children would like to possess and books with which they can assemble a Three-Foot-Shelf of their own? Above all, are they interesting?"

In order that there might be a type of book that would appeal to every child, Teacher tried to include as many varied specimens with a second grade appeal as possible: poetry, fables, myths, fairy and folk stories, animal and nature stories, travel and realistic stories and the like. Nothing remained permanently upon the shelf that was not read and enjoyed. At the end of the term Teacher counted sixteen volumes fitting snugly upon the shelf. None certainly were as tattered and torn as the lover of the maiden all forlorn in the nursery rhyme, neither had any been lost, yet all showed signs of hard wear. And why not, when Arax and Moe had read them to fathers and mothers, to grandfathers and grandmothers, even to the baby? Were not books meant to be read?

What books won a place upon the Three-Foot Shelf?

(1) *MOTHER GOOSE*, a copy edited by Charles Welsh, (D. C. Heath), of clear type with pictures upon every page, and many full page plates.

(2) *SUGAR AND SPICE AND ALL THAT'S NICE*, an anthology of poetry for children by Mary Milder Tileston (Little, Brown).

(3) *GRIMM'S FAIRY TALES FOR PRIMARY GRADES* by Edna H. L. Turpin, (Merrill).

(4) *PICTURE TALES FROM THE RUSSIAN* by Vallery Carrick (Stokes). Russian folk-lore, exploits of tricky Mr. Fox, with clever black and white illustrations which are a complement to a child's intelligence.

(5) *THE F-U-N Book*
and

(6) *UNDER THE STORY TREE*. Two collections of jolly stories with such titles as "The Candy Boy," "The Runaway Sled," "The King of the Robins," by Mabel G. LaRue

and with delightful illustrations by Maud and Miska Petersham, (Macmillan).

(7) *THE FUNNY LITTLE MAN* by Johnny Gruelle, the author of *Raggedy Ann*; the children liked his lively pictures very much, (Volland).

(8) *TALE OF TWO BAD MICE* by Beatrix Potter, the author of the "Story of Peter Rabbit" (McKay).

(9) *THE BOOK OF NATURE MYTHS* by Florence Holbrook. Folklore about animals, birds and natural objects appealing to very young readers, (Houghton Mifflin).

(10) *THE CHRISTOPHER ROBIN READER* by A. A. Milne, (Dutton). Selections from Milne's four books of poetry and prose.

(11) *LITTLE BLACK MINGO* by Helen Bannerman, (Stokes). A companion volume to "Little Black Sambo," not so well known but quite as entertaining.

(12) *LITTLE INDIAN FOLK* by E. W. and T. O. Deming, (Stokes). Interesting stories of Indian Life.

(13) *LAZY MATILDA AND OTHER TALES* by Katherine Pyle, (Dutton). Deals with numerous virtues or the lack of them in a humorous and entertaining manner, recommended by many prominent librarians.

(14) (15) *THE ESKIMO TWINS*, and *THE DUTCH TWINS* by Lucy F. Perkins, giving glimpses of far-away lands, and excellently illustrated by the author (Rand McNally).

(16) *THE TRAVELS OF SAMMY THE TURTLE* by Marion Bullard, (Dutton). The story of an adventurous turtle, with humorous pictures.

Many of these books can not be called classic, but all are well written and entertaining, of clear print and strongly and attractively bound. Most of them can be bought for less than a dollar—an advantage on the "Street of the Push-Carts." For children with a different cultural background who could receive outside assistance in reading, quite a different selection of books might have been made. For this reason, too, a few of the books were slightly below rather

Individualization of Grammar in the Intermediate Grades

JANET L. RIEMAN

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(Continued from May)

LESSON E. THE COMMA IN ADDRESS AND AFTER

YES AND NO

I. Explanation

The one mark of punctuation that seems to give us the most trouble is the comma. If we were to leave it out always, our readers might mistake the meaning of what we wished to say. Notice these:

Tell, John, quickly.

Tell John quickly.

What change in meaning do the commas make?

1. In the first sentence John is the person.....
2. In the second sentence John is the.....

The following simple rule may help you to write this kind of sentence in such a way that the meaning may never be mistaken:

A comma is used to separate from the rest of the sentence the name of the person whom you are addressing.

When you read such a sentence as "Tell, John, quickly," the commas seem to tell you to pause in your reading. Another time when commas help to make the meaning clear by telling you to pause, is when "Yes" or "No" is in a sentence. This is the reason for another rule you will find will help you:

A comma is used after "Yes" and "No."

Key to Explanation

1. Who is to tell something.
2. To whom something is to be told.

II. Practice Exercises

Can you apply these two rules when you place commas where they are needed in these sentences? Copy them corrected in your notebooks.

1. That basket Mr. Ransen is not large enough.
2. No Harry the ice will not be good for skating.
3. Will you help her work that problem Mary?
4. Well boys are you ready to go?
5. No Miss Lang I should not put the comma there.
6. Yes Louise that exhibit is exceedingly interesting.
7. Yes class your story is to be handed in on

Monday.

8. Yes I shall be delighted to go with you Helen.
9. No Miss Brown I haven't found my keys.
10. Mother will you call me at seven o'clock?
11. No I haven't time to do that George.
12. Yes boys it certainly is a good magazine.
13. Is it correct Mr. French to say, "He doesn't"?
14. Yes Fred it is correct.
15. Yes Mr. Flynn I shall take the paper to the office.

Compare your work with Key E, Unit II. If there are any points you do not understand ask your teacher to explain them to you. When you are sure you have done your very best on this lesson, go on to your next lesson.

Key to Lesson E

1. That basket, Mr. Ransen, is not large enough.
2. No, Harry, the ice will not be good for skating.
3. Will you help her work that problem, Mary?
4. Well, boys, are you ready to go?
5. No, Miss Lang, I should not put the comma there.
6. Yes, Louise, that exhibit is exceedingly interesting.
7. Yes, class, your story is to be handed in on Monday.
8. Yes, I shall be delighted to go with you, Helen.
9. No, Miss Brown, I haven't found my keys.
10. Mother, will you call me at seven o'clock?
11. No, I haven't time to do that, George.
12. Yes, boys, it certainly is a good magazine.
13. Is it correct, Mr. French, to say, "He doesn't"?
14. Yes, Fred, it is correct.
15. Yes, Mr. Flynn, I shall take the paper to the office.

LESSON F. THE COMMA IN DATES AND ADDRESSES

I. Explanation

No doubt, you have often written letters either in school when your teacher has given you that opportunity as an assignment or else out of school when you have written to some friend or relative. Strangely enough, however, in spite of the number of times seventh grade boys and girls have written such letters, there are two places in letters where

using commas troubles them a great deal. The first is the comma that is used in the date and the second is the comma that separates the parts of an address. Of course, letters are not the only places where we need to use commas in these ways. This lesson gives you an opportunity to practice more on using commas in dates and addresses.

The Comma in Dates:

A comma always separates the parts of a date. For instance, if the day of the week is given as well as the day of the month and the year, the comma is inserted between the day of the week and the name of the month and also between the day of the month and the number of the year. For example:

On Tuesday, June 3, 1927 the boat left New York.

The Comma in Addresses:

A comma separates the parts of an address. Notice the following illustration.

He moved from 236 Highland Avenue, Wilmington, Delaware to Detroit, Michigan.

II. Practice Exercises

Place commas where necessary in these sentences:

1. Ann Arbor Michigan is a beautiful city.
2. What is the distance from Boston Massachusetts to Washington D. C.?
3. Thomas Tredgold was born at Brandon England August 22 1788.
4. In July 1905 at Norfolk Virginia he started his training.
5. The telegram was addressed to Mr. John Avery 2684 Cornwell Avenue Chicago Illinois.
6. On Wednesday Dec. 3 1929 that play was presented.
7. He has a camp at Madison Dane County Wisconsin.
8. Houghton Lake in Michigan is a summer resort.
9. At Empire Kansas on July 4 1909 he had a good meeting.
10. Lakewood New Jersey and Lakewood Ohio are very different cities.
11. On April 6 1909 they moved to Baton Rouge Louisiana.
12. At Houston Texas the Democrats met; the Republicans chose Kansas City Missouri for their convention.

Compare your work with Key F. If there are any points you do not understand, ask your teacher to explain them to you. When you are sure that you understand this lesson, go on to your next lesson.

Key to Lesson F

1. Ann Arbor, Michigan is a beautiful city.
2. What is the distance from Boston, Massachusetts to Washington, D. C.?

3. Thomas Tredgold was born at Brandon, England, August 22, 1788.

4. In July, 1905 at Norfolk, Virginia he started his training.

5. The telegram was addressed to Mr. John Avery, 2684 Cornwell Avenue, Chicago, Illinois.

6. On Wednesday, Dec. 3, 1929 that play was presented.

7. He had a camp at Madison, Dane County, Wisconsin.

8. Houghton Lake in Michigan is a summer resort.

9. At Empire, Kansas on July 4, 1909 he had a good meeting.

10. Lakewood, New Jersey and Lakewood, Ohio are very different cities.

11. On April 6, 1909 they moved to Baton Rouge, Louisiana.

12. At Houston, Texas the Democrats met; the Republicans chose Kansas City, Missouri for their convention.

LESSON G. THE COMMA IN A SERIES

I. Explanation

Have you ever seen sentences like these?

1. Grapes and apples and dates and celery were in the salad.
2. He rushed into the room and threw his books on the table and grabbed his bag of marbles and disappeared through the door.

Do these sentences remind you of the sentences we had in Unit I? What was the trouble maker in them? If you think you know how to improve the sentences, re-write them in your notebook.

You will remember that commas should be put in place of each "and" that is removed from the series and also a comma is placed just before the last "and", the one which is kept. This is the rule you should follow whenever there are more than two words or phrases in a series. Sometimes, of course, there are just two words or phrases in the series and then no comma is needed at all.

II. Practice Exercises

Can you take the unnecessary "ands" out of the following sentences and place commas where they should be? Show that you are able to do this by copying these sentences correctly in your notebook.

1. Tom and Charles and Fred and Emil had gone to the circus.
2. Near the building that is being torn down George found nails and bolts and screws and small pieces of copper wire.
3. Harold and John are classmates at Harvard.
4. A book and a pencil and a baseball and a hat were lying in one corner of the room.
5. While in Europe she visited London and Antwerp and Paris and Naples and Rome.

6. We honor the names of Washington and Lincoln and Roosevelt and Wilson.
7. There are two maple trees and an oak tree and an apple tree near the house.
8. Peaches and pears and apples and oranges were on display.
9. They went to the bank and to the drug store and to the grocery.
10. John and Jack and Paul and Jimmie were invited to the party.

When you have completed these sentences as well as you can, compare your work with Key G. If you have made mistakes and do not understand why the sentences in the key are right, ask your teacher for help. When you feel sure that you understand this lesson go on to your next lesson.

Key to Lesson G

1. Tom, Charles, Fred, and Emil had gone to the circus.

2. Near the building that is being torn down George found nails, bolts, screws, and small pieces of copper wire.

3. Harold and John are classmates at Harvard.
4. A book, a pencil, a baseball, and a hat were lying in one corner of the room.
5. While in Europe she visited London, Antwerp, Paris, Naples, and Rome.

6. We honor the names of Washington, Lincoln, Roosevelt, and Wilson.

7. There are two maple trees, an oak tree, and an apple tree near the house.

8. Peaches, pears, apples, and oranges were on display.

9. They went to the bank, to the drug store, and to the grocery.

10. John, Jack, Paul, and Jimmie were invited to the party.

(To be Continued)

A SECOND GRADE'S THREE-FOOT-SHELF

(Continued from page 172)

than above normal grade standards. Yet all of them are of a type that led Arax and Moe to beg, "Please lend me another book, Teacher." Grimy pieces of paper were thrust into Teacher's hand with the request, "Please write down the name and the place where my mother can buy this book." The second grade was well on the way to acquiring the reading habit, a habit of which all National Educational Associations most certainly approve.

As the selector of the Three-Foot Book

Shelf saw eager heads bent over books, saw bright, young faces alight with interest and pleasure, she thought that she knew exactly how the Little Gray God-Mother must have felt when she saw her magic cloak unfurl and carry the Little Lame Prince to pleasant lands far away from his Lonely Tower, to places where without its help he never could have gone. For with neither an Abra - ca - da - bra nor a magic wand, but with a mere three feet of wood and paper, had she not given the Second Grade a magic cloak?

Editorial

MORE ADEQUATE DIAGNOSIS

IN HIS article on "Right Uses of a Standard Language Test," Dr. Wilson says, "The main purpose of testing is to aid teaching, and any good test should serve this main purpose." It is upon this use of tests that Dr. Pressey based her investigation, which is reported in her article, page 157, on "Errors in Written Composition and Scores on Proof-Reading Tests." Her discussion of the results obtained contains the following statement. "It appears upon casual inspection that the scores (of the objective test) if used at their face value would fail to indicate some students who needed drill, and would recommend drill needlessly for other students. On the other hand, the use of a single composition would apparently be little if any better."

Going further with the statement of the probability of false diagnosis on a too literal interpretation of data, it should be said that the instructional procedure should include as many sources of information as possible, thus supplementing evidence obtained through the agency of scientific tests with other means of analysis and observation.

A very close analogy may be drawn between medical and educational diagnosis. The physician may rely upon laboratory tests and scientific reports from the clinic for a considerable amount of information concerning the patient, but when all such data have been assembled and carefully interpreted, the wise physician supplements with another kind of investigation, into which his own powers of intelligence enter as a factor. He balances his scientific findings with the results of his observation of the temperament and personality of the patient.

The trouble with so much of the diagnostic work in the schools is that it so often runs in extremes. In one school the testing is done, and the results ardently backed up with little consideration of other factors which might shed light upon the case. Here the diagnosis is presumably scientific but narrow-gauged, and likely to be misleading or outright erroneous.

There is the other extreme in which the teacher trusts herself to judge all of the cases by sizing them up personally, on the basis of her experience in such matters. To illustrate. A teacher undertakes to say, after teaching a class of forty children a month, which are the ten or twelve pupils weakest specifically in the use of capital letters, periods at ends of sentences, or the comma before direct quotation. Such informal diagnosis is, as a rule, flagrantly bad. A strong-minded teacher, working this way, will be influenced by all kinds of minor or major prejudices. Instead of letting the test clear up and simplify for her the obviously complicated problems of appraisal, she undertakes the all but impossible task of holding in mind all of the contributory elements, finally reaching a conclusion which at best can only be a snap judgment.

These two extremes must be avoided if helpful diagnostic work is to be done in classroom teaching. Test data must be handled not as so much isolated evidence, but as one valuable and helpful kind of information to be used in combination with every possible reliable source of information that the teachers can command. The school that wishes accurate diagnosis as a basis for effective teaching of language would do well to combine teachers' judgments with test results, and do it systematically.

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